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EASTERN EDUCATION JOURNAL

The Eastern Education Journal seeks to present competent discussions of contemporary issues in education and toward this end generally publishes articles written by persons active in the profession of education who have developed degrees of expertise through preparation and experience in the field.

We are currently soliciting articles. All varieties of manuscript will be accepted. Research summaries, program descriptions, and book reviews are considered worthy; the Editorial Board, however, will give priority to original points of view and strong personal position papers. Controversy is welcome, and the editors hope to present a balance of pro and con articles on current issues in education. Manuscripts must be submitted to the Editor, Ronald Leathers, School of Education, Eastern Illinois University.

1. Manuscript size should be limited to 3000 words or less. It should be typed, double spaced, on 8½ by 11 paper. Footnotes should be kept to a minimum, and all footnotes and references must appear at the end of the article.

2. The original and three legible copies are required; articles accepted for publication are read and approved by a minimum of three members of the Editorial Board.

3. Each manuscript submitted should be accompanied by an identification cover sheet containing the following current information about each author:

a. Name and official title

b. Institutional affiliation

c. Address, including zip code

d. A statement whether or not the article has been previously published or is under consideration by another publication.

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THE EDITOR'S PAGE

The old adage, "A FIRST FOR EVERYTHING," seems quite appropriate. We wish to call the reader's attention to several "firsts" to be found among the current pages which influenced, considerably, this issue of the JOURNAL and which will undoubtedly continue their impact on succeeding issues:

Dr. Frank Lutz assumed the position, Dean of the School of Education at Eastern, on July 1, 1980, and immediately pledged his support for enhancing the quality, increasing the circulation, and advancing the reputation of the JOURNAL. (See page 25.)

Dr. Stanley Rives became Vice-president for Academic Affairs at Eastern on January 1, 1981, and expressed his support of the School of Education's intentions to improve upon the JOURNAL'S regional and national impact. (See page 18.)

Dr. Robert Barger, of Eastern's faculty, accepted our invitation to provide his expertise and precious time as Guest Editor for this "special topics" issue on *rural education.*

New resources provided by the University made it possible to improve upon the overall format of our publication. Commercial typesetting and printing services, addition of pictures, new cover design, and larger page size have greatly enhanced, we believe, the overall appearance and reader appeal of the JOURNAL.

We approach the future with an encouraging degree of approbation and optimism, and we welcome reader's reactions and suggestions.

The editorial stand is simple: to encourage educators to speak up. Educational problems are numerous and complicated; the teacher without ideas, and questions, is stagnant and virtually useless. We can move steadily toward solution of our problems through increased communication and intellectual exchange of ideas.

The JOURNAL'S purpose is to encourage both of these avenues. If you know of something new in schools, if you have a fresh viewpoint on an established trend, if you have a significant research interest, or if you wish to respond to previously published material, send us your articles. As our backlog of material grows, so will our JOURNAL grow, in content and stature.

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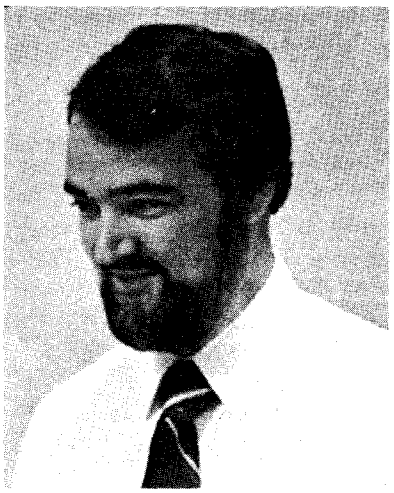
INTRODUCING RURAL EDUCATION

ROBERT N. BARGER



Our guest editor for this issue of the *Journal* is Dr. Robert Barger, Associate Professor of Education at Eastern Illinois University. His teaching and research interests are in the area of Educational Foundations.

This issue of the *Eastern Education Journal* is devoted to the theme of rural education. Like many educational concerns which have come into prominence in recent years, rural education—although much neglected—has been around for a long time. When the Governor of the State of Illinois, John R. Tanner, spoke at the opening of Eastern Illinois University on August 31, 1899, he cited the special need for teacher education institutions to service rural needs, saying that while the city teacher had a skilled superintendent for a resource, "the country school teacher must work out her own salvation with fear and trembling."[1] Although one of the first circulars that Eastern issued stated that the School "has already plans under consideration which will make important contributions to the solution of this problem,"[2] very little specific attention was given to the needs of rural education during the ensuing years.

More recently, however, rural education has begun to reclaim public attention. Urban schools have started to adopt practices such as cross-age grouping, personalized attention and peer-tutoring which were once largely associated with rural schools.

This renewed focus on rural education is reflected in the following articles. The first article, "Rural Education Today," gives an overall view of the present characteristics, problems and prospects of rural education. The author of this article is Gail A. Parks, Education Program Director at the National Rural Center. The Center, located in Washington, D.C., is a private, non-profit organization which develops and implements national policies and programs to increase development opportunities in rural areas. Dr. Parks, besides writing the lead article, has provided valuable assistance in the formation of this special theme issue of the *Journal.*

The second article, "Rural Education and the U.S. Congress," is written by John Melcher, a U.S. Senator from the state of Montana. It provides an authoritative inside view of the attention that rural education is presently receiving (or, more accurately, not receiving!) from the federal government.

The third article is entitled "The Experience of the Rural School." The principal author of this article is Shirley Hall, an undergraduate student at Eastern Illinois University and a former student in rural elementary and secondary schools. Collaborating with Ms. Hall on this article were her grandmother, Elsie Wahls, who is a former teacher of a one-room school, and Pete Meiss, who is the administrator of the high school which Ms. Hall attended. This article vividly describes the advantages of a rural school.

The fourth article, "A Rural District's Problems," is written by James R. Koss, Superintendent of Schools in the rural district of Casey, Illinois (Community Unit C-1). This article not only outlines the problems of a rural district, but also proposes some creative solutions to them.

The fifth article, "Teacher Centers and Rural Needs," outlines how a newly inaugurated institution, the teacher center, is serving rural education. The article is written by Glen Shaw, Executive Director of the Southwest and West Central Educational Cooperative Service Unit which is located in Marshall, Minnesota.

The sixth article, "Rural Teachers and Teacher Education," deals with the preparation of teachers for service in a rural environment. It is written by Landa Trentham, Associate Professor of Educational Foundations at Auburn University, and Jack E. Blackburn, Dean of the School of Education at Auburn.

The last article, "How Rural Elementary Principals Perceive Their Role: Implications for Training," reports some interesting results from a recent empirical study on rural education. The authors are Robert J. Krajewski, Alumni professor of Educational Leadership at Auburn University, and Larry Parker, Adjunct Instructor at West Georgia College.

REFERENCES

[1]*The Charleston Courier,* August 31, 1899.

[2]Circular of Eastern Illinois State Normal School at Charleston, n.d. (ca. July 1, 1899), Eastern Illinois University Archives.

RURAL EDUCATION TODAY

GAIL A. PARKS

Dr. Parks is Education Program Director at the National Rural Center. Previously, she worked with the National Institute of Education. She is, herself, a product of rural schools.

Who are America's rural students? What are their schools like?

In the United States today, one student in every three attends an elementary or secondary school in a nonmetropolitan area. Approximately one student in four attends school in the countryside or in a place with fewer than 2,500 residents. In 1976, small (and primarily rural) school districts outnumbered those enrolling 1,000 students (or more) by more than a thousand.

The last census revealed that eighteen states had populations that were at least forty percent rural. In twenty-six states, at least one-third of the population was designated rural. The word "rural," however, means various things to various people. For example, students who attend schools in small range towns and prairie towns, or in Eskimo villages, or on isolated islands and mountaintops can all be classified as rural students.

Although some rural schools are as wealthy as their suburban counterparts—and produce comparable academic results—the incidence of poverty in the United States is greater among rural students than among any other student population. Moreover, the degree of poverty tends to be more severe.

In fact, forty percent of all U.S. poverty exists in rural places, and almost twenty percent of our nation's rural children are poor.

Rural minorities are poorer than urban minorities. In many of the poorest rural places, academic performance falls well below the national average; good teachers are hard to recruit and hard to retain; and the range of services and programs available to rural students compares poorly with those found elsewhere.

Given the quantity of rhetoric spent on "equal educational opportunity" over the last fifteen years, one might reasonably expect that the education of rural students—who constitute the largest minority school population in the country—would be a focus of national concern at both popular and official levels. Only during the past year, however, have there been strong indications of national concern. In December, 1979, President Carter announced a Small Town and Rural Community Development Policy, with rural education to be included.

But signs of indifference remain:

- How often, for example, does one see contemporary rural life or rural schools featured in the mass media? Popular magazines and professional journals treat rural education with almost equal indifference, although in the last two years occasional articles have appeared here and there.
- In the Department of Education, no division or program has rural education as its major concern.
- A scan of a recent list of U.S. Office of Education publications reveals no rural titles, but does turn up reports on education in Ecuador and Tunisia.

Rural educators, in fact, have developed an immunity to the question, "Is there really such a thing as rural education? Isn't education the same everywhere, and don't all schools have problems that are just education in nature?"

In significant ways, the answer is no, schools everywhere are not the same. The sparsity of population, small size of schools, and poverty in rural areas all make a difference in schooling. So does being part of a population that is rarely acknowledged, let alone accommodated, in an urban, postindustrial society.

Many Americans may not know that some rural parts of the United States resemble developing nations. There are counties in at least one southern state, for example, where the illiteracy rate among the adult population is more than seventy percent.

In other instances, isolation resulting from difficult terrain and distance play a greater role than poverty in creating unique educational problems:

- High-school students on ranches in eastern Oregon may travel 100 miles each day to attend a small, centrally-located school.
- Eskimo students routinely use air transportation to play basketball against a team from a "neighboring" village.
- For much of the winter, students who live in Big Laurel, West Virginia, cannot get down from the top of their mountain to the "road" on which the school buses run. Until they won their fight to have their own one-room school, the students simply stayed home for a good portion of the school year.
- In North Haven, Maine, high-school students depend on ferry service for access to the mainland. Now they make routine use of an exchange system to learn about the world apart from their island.

And to a considerable degree, rural America contains schools that are necessarily small because the population is sparse or the terrain vast or mountainous.

So in a sense there is an educational condition that is undeniably rural. But not all rural schools are poor or

isolated in the sense described here. And within the category of sparsity and smallness, there are enormous differences arising from history, culture, race, settlement patterns, and varying social class configurations in rural communities. The sum of these differences often results in rural citizens advocating antithetical policies for their schools: consolidation when that term also means desegregation, as has been the case throughout the Southeast; and deconsolidation (or anti-consolidation) when poor people from far outlying areas stand to lose their schools and see the advantages go to the towns, as is now the case in West Virginia, other parts of Appalachia, and areas of the Northeast and Midwest. In the one instance, a disadvantaged group has been seen as benefiting from the same policy that is seen as harmful to another disadvantaged group.

Why, in a nation like the United States, has rural education been treated like Cinderella? Why have no programs to recognize the problems—if not immediately correct them—been suggested?

Some of the major factors for this nation's failure to meet the needs of rural education are migration patterns, industrialization and modernization, and the rapid development of technology in mass communications. Between 1929 and 1969—when millions of people migrated from the country to the cities—one trillion dollars traveled with the migrants from the rural to the urban places. Among those who left the countryside and the small towns were some of the best educated and most talented young people. These people had been educated mostly at local community expense, for at that time federal and state contributions to education were quite limited. Yet the skills and talents of many of these rural migrants ultimately benefited the whole nation.

But why have our rural students not been educated to stay home and contribute their talents toward improving their own communities—or at least educated to choose the course their lives would take?

The schools of America, including those of rural America, complied with the requests of industry. Thomas Jefferson's dream of an enlightened yeomanry determining the nation's course was left far behind—as were his schemes for small local schools controlled by the local citizenry. Schools were asked to educate students "for tomorrow," and that is what schools set out to do.

The response in many rural places was to organize schools according to urban models. Many experts apparently believed that what worked in the city would work in the countryside, too. They were wrong.

The misfit created by designing rural schools according to urban models is now being admitted—more so, probably, in the past few years than at any time in the past sixty years. This admission is probably linked to—and reflected in—the "population turnaround" or "reverse migration" that has been occurring since 1970. What this means, simply, is that more people are taking the urban-to-rural route than are going the other way.

And, to keep the rural character of their schools, rural people are beginning to organize—something they haven't done for a long time. On behalf of their community schools, rural citizens in Iowa and West Virginia have formed organizations to prevent further reorganization.

Not only are rural people initiating new efforts to improve their lives and the lives of their children; a small group of scholars, writers, researchers, and federal officials also has taken up the "cause." One outcome of their collaboration was the first National Seminar on Rural Education in May, 1979. A second National seminar is now being planned for June, 1981. And each Office in the Department of Education has been charged with the responsibility of attending to the rural population.

What does this renewed interest in rural education mean?

First, it means that after decades of being ignored and neglected, rural education problems are being taken seriously, as policymakers, educators and citizens seek innovative ways of providing essential services to all rural students.

Second, it means that rural schools and citizens' groups have a better chance of "getting a hearing" in Washington than they have had for many years; the Department of Education has expressed a willingness to listen.

Third, it suggests that we now recognize the folly of looking for "the one best rural school system," and that diverse rural circumstances are likely to be considered as necessary actions are taken to redress prior neglect.

Finally, the late rural education renascence suggests that the nation as a whole is learning to honor what rural people have always valued—a sense of belonging to a particular kind of place, one that has a "rural character" but also very special traditions in each place. Educators have begun to recognize that rural parents would like their schools to transmit—along with necessary skills and knowledge—something of the rural heritage to students, but that how each school does so must depend upon the unique circumstances of each local setting and community.

S.I.U. DEAN RETURNS TO CLASSROOM

Elmer J. Clark will leave the deanship, College of Education, Southern Illinois University at Carbondale, to assume teaching duties in the educational leadership department there. Clark has served as a dean for 26 years, nine of which he was dean of graduate studies, Indiana State University.

RURAL EDUCATION AND THE U.S. CONGRESS

JOHN MELCHER

John Melcher is a United States Senator from the state of Montana. A Democrat, he served as a mayor, state representative, state senator and U.S. Congressman before his election to the U.S. Senate in 1976.

It is necessary to recognize that the word "rural" means different things to different people. A New York cab driver thinks Chicago is a rural town. Montanans believe Billings (73,000 pop.) is a major metropolis and that any town with over 5,000 people is a big city.

A rural school to millions of Americans is the sentimental image depicted by the popular TV series "Little House on the Prairie" where the one room school is the major center of culture, the teacher a paragon of wisdom and patience, and the children orderly and alert at all times. To others "rural" means a depressed area of black sharecroppers, a camp for Hispanic migrant farm workers, or an Indian reservation. To some degree, all of these concepts relate to valid components of the rural scene, yet none is exclusively or even predominantly typical.

There is no nationally accepted definition of the term "rural." In some Federal agencies everything other than a Standard Statistical Metropolitan Area (population 50,000) is considered rural. Federal funds in such agencies invariably wind up, for the most part, in the larger towns—big cities by Montana standards—which have the most skilled proposal writing professionals.

The Department of Agriculture uses the Census Bureau definition of rural community as one with a population of anything less than 2,500. To me, as a former mayor of Forsyth, Montana, which then had a population of about 2,000, that makes more sense.

In 1977, I wrote the U.S. Commissioner of Education asking for the name of the contact person for rural education in the agency. After weeks of eloquent silence, in response to a phone call by a staff member to the Office of Education, the name of Elizabeth Sutton was identified as the staff person for rural concerns. Well and good, because Elizabeth Sutton and her late husband, Dr. Howard Dawson, were for years leading proponents of rural education in America. Unfortunately, at least for the Commissioner of Education, the Office of Education was unaware that Elizabeth Sutton had retired and had not been on the staff for over two years! There are two possible interpretations of this circumstance. One, that no one but me had even asked the Feds about rural education for over two years; or, second, that no one in the Office of Education had the slightest concern about rural children and rural schools. I'm afraid both interpretations are correct.

In response to this experience, I wrote a rather firm letter to the Commissioner asking among other things, who really was the rural contact and how many professional people on the staff of the Office had any background and experience in rural education. Several months later, after repeated phone calls, the letter of response arrived identifying Dr. Norman Hearn as the rural contact, but also assuring me that, due to the lack of funds, the research project necessary to identify OE staff with rural background and experience could not be carried out. Personally, I do not believe that polling the staff, by sending each one a card asking for name, title, room number and a one line space to write in the name of the place and the date of employment in a rural situation would be prohibitively expensive. The mail distribution person could collect the cards, an unpaid intern could count and tabulate them. The total cost wouldn't have been more than a few dollars. I can only assume that the Commissioner felt the results of such a survey would have been so dismal, from my point of view, that ignorance, in this case, was more blissful for him than an irate Senator would be.

Up to this point I had not been particularly committed to the establishment of a Department of Education. I was aware of the arguments, pro and con, for such a policy. Both sides were persuasive. But after this experience with the Office of Education, my decision was firm and my support for the Department of Education was active. The main basis for this support was that under the old Structure of Health, Education and Welfare, the Education component was tucked away between two huge agencies whose awesome responsibilities consumed all of the Secretary of HEW's time and energies. The education bureaucracy went its own merry way, unresponsive to the elected representatives of the people. Appeals to the Secretary of HEW on behalf of the rural education constituency fell on deaf ears. He was totally—and understandably—absorbed in the problems of the social security system and the problems of health programs.

The persuasive arguments of Senator Ribicoff, chief sponsor of the Education Department bill who had been Secretary of HEW in the Kennedy Administration, carried the day in the Senate. Representative Jack Brooks of Texas, a strong opponent of Federal control of education and an equally strong supporter of public schools, led the fight in the House. The debate on the issue as carried in the Congressional records should be invaluable to students of

the structure and future of American education.

After the Department came into existence, I renewed my efforts for rural education. No miracles were expected and none occurred. The early months of the transition were marked by behind-the-scenes empire building and bureaucratic infighting typical of the creation of any new agency. Ironically, rural education, the former reject, became a bone of contention—and still is. Despite letters to the Secretary from Senator Ribicoff and me and from Representative Brooks explaining that the words "rural education" in the section of the law dealing with vocational and adult education did not mean that the Assistant Secretary for Vocational and Adult Education was to coordinate programs for rural elementary and secondary schools, the Department lawyers insist that this is what the law says. My letter of May 30, 1980, to the Secretary of Education described the situation clearly:

Dear Madam Secretary:

As a strong supporter of the law establishing the Department of Education I have been impressed with the progress you have made so far in establishing the Department. Achieving this in a shorter time and with less expenditure than the law allowed must have set a record of sorts.

In the rush to "get going", however, one major detail has been overlooked. In the interest of brevity, I am enclosing two letters, one from Senator Ribicoff and me, and one from Representative Jack Brooks, Chairman of the House-Senate conference which brought the final bill through the Congress. Also enclosed is a copy of the reply bearing your signature. And, finally, enclosed is a form letter from you designating the placement of various functions of the Department, all of which make sense. Missing from this listing, however, is rural elementary and secondary education, the subject of our concern.

Contacts by my staff with various members of the transition team have brought assurance that obviously the Office of Elementary and Secondary Education would be designated as the responsible unit to serve the rural school constituency. I choose to ignore one staff attorney who informed my assistant—and these are his exact words: "It doesn't make any difference what Ribicoff and Brooks say the law means. We (apparently the Department) will interpret what the law says, not Congress." If that expresses your attitude, which I doubt, then the Department of Education is doomed before it gets really started.

With all due respect to your profession, I must advise you that my main reason for supporting the creation of the Department of Education was the strong desire to release the Office of Education from the clutches of the HEW attorneys. This strange group probably has done more to foster the anti-federal aid to education attitude than any other factor. The unconscionable delay in issuing final regulations on various federal programs, usually over 600 days from the date of enactment, while the HEW legal staff worked over the regulation proposed by USOE, has caused the competent educators and state legislators of my state to become most disillusioned with Federal education programs. I saw in the Department of Education legislation a golden opportunity to carry out a rescue mission for education. Now I fear these same myopic legal eagles have been transferred to the new Department from HEW. If the attitude so prevalent there—that the entire education community cannot be trusted and that every conceivable and bizarre potential loophole in a law must be nitpicked to death—is to continue to be the pattern in your agency, then God help us. The forms will get longer, the paperwork will proliferate and the frustrations will intensify.

My plea is for common sense. One important way to demonstrate that, indeed, this virtue will prevail is for you to designate, once and for all, that the responsibility to serve the rural schools of the country lies with the Office of Elementary and Secondary Education and not with the Office of Adult and Vocational Education. The fact that under Sec. 206 the words "rural education" are included obviously refers, as Representative Brooks stated, to adult rural education and not to schools serving children and youth.

You may think this is a tempest in a teapot. I assure you it is not. The rural educators and rural parents of this country are very much concerned. They are resentful of what they believe to be an anti-rural bias on the part of the Administration. They believe that "the Feds" are disdaintul of their interest. This attitude was beginning to break down, largely due to the leadership of Dr. Tom Minter, now Assistant Secretary for Elementary and Secondary Education, who in the last few years has given evidence that he does recognize the uniqueness of rural schools and their mission. To reverse this positive development because of an internal power struggle within your Department will be a tragedy of major proportions. What is necessary and immediate is a clear and overt act on your part in designating the Office of Elementary and Secondary Education as the agency within the Department responsible for serving the rural school constituency and for coordinating programs in other components of the Department, such as research, teacher education, community school development, etc., to be sure that rural concerns are considered along with all others.

I recognize that this objective can be achieved by legislation and have not precluded that approach. However, I would rather not bring the issue to the Senate floor to serve as a vehicle for the opponents of the Department to rehash their arguments against its existence.

I will appreciate a prompt response. And please do not send me copies of the Rural Education Initiative and the Report on the National Rural Education Seminar. I have received these. They are nice. What is needed is a positive action, which you alone can take, to satisfy the concerns of the rural education community of this country.

Best regards,

Sincerely,
John Melcher

As usual, weeks passed without a reply. With a feeling of frustration on June 25, 1980, I introduced S. 2879. The language is clear. The total bill is as follows:

A BILL

"To amend the Department of Education Act, Public Law 96-88

(20 U.S.C. 3414)

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, that section 204 of the Department of Education Act, Public Law 96-88 (20 U.S.C. 3414), is amended by adding at the end thereof a new sentence as follows: "The Assistant Secretary shall have the responsibility for assuring that the unique interests of rural elementary and secondary schools are met in all programs administered by the Department."

(As of this writing there are eleven cosponsors).

The purpose of S. 2879 is to serve as a vehicle for hearings in the Senate on the role of the Department in rural education. It seems logical to me that the Assistant Secretary for Elementary and Secondary Education, as provided in Section 204, is the proper place in the Department structure for a rural contact. But I am not unalterably wedded to this concept, nor are the co-sponsors. Our objective is to have a rural "presence" in the Department to call appropriate attention in all facets of the program to the "unique interests" of rural education—in vocation, adult, higher, special as well as elementary and secondary education and in research. I guess I'm describing an ombudsman for rural people—a small staff with top level backing who can enlighten the regulation writers, in particular, that all schools are not urban, all districts are not like Los Angeles or Chicago or Houston, that all rural children are not impoverished minorities or migrants.

And frankly, I think that the Feds can learn a lot from rural people. Certainly our small schools have much to offer that large school systems could emulate. Smaller classes, personalized instruction, broad participation in activities, emphasis on basics, parent involvement, these are virtues coveted by urban schools' enthusiasm for a program in which a group of 15 children, many of them siblings, spread through several grades, were taught by one teacher for a year. The older ones helped the younger ones, the families were involved, the achievement levels substantially improved, the experiment was a success! From the description of the program, it was a one room rural school of which, by necessity of distance, there are still several in Montana and other western states.

Whether or not S. 2879, or something similar, is adopted,

the Congress has recently passed, and the President has signed, the Regulatory Flexibility Act, now Public Law 96-354, which can be of great assistance to small schools and colleges, as well as to other rural agencies.

Primarily aimed at the overburden of regulations on small businesses, as a result of hearings over a four-year period the original scope of the bill was broadened to include small units of government *including school districts*.

The law, in effect, requires government agencies to abandon their entrenched policies of promulgating regulations to fit New York City, while holding Forsyth, Montana, to the same standard—and the same degree of paperwork. The Senate Report on S. 299 states the problem succinctly:

"...Regulations tend to be uniform in design, permit little discretion in their implementation and implicitly assume that all those subject to them are basically alike."

The definition of "small governmental jurisdiction" in the law means "governments of cities, countries, towns, villages,*school districts,*or special assessment districts, with a population of less than 50,000, unless an agency establishes by rule, in accordance with this section, a definition of such term which is appropriate to the activities or any rule of the agency and which *is based on such factors as location in rural or sparsely populated areas or limited revenues due to the population of such jurisdiction."*

The law, P.L. 96-354, is so new that it is, as of this writing, not yet in print. And passing the law, as an act in itself, does not automatically assure that reasonableness and cooperation will not permeate the bureaucracy. As with most reforms, the resistance to change on the part of the agencies affected demands a counter force on the part of the people.

Rural people through their organizations will have to bring pressure on the agencies to comply with the law. Educators will have to press for support from within their own organizations. It is clear to any legislator that large groups such as NEA, National School Boards, AASA, the American Council on Education, etc., have not been in the forefront of the battle for rural education. The members from rural areas should see to it that these powerful groups help their rural constituencies more than they have to date.

Just to make the record clear, I am not proposing Federal control of education. I fought hard for strong language in the bill establishing the Department that clearly precludes such a possibility. I am not suggesting that urban schools, minority children or major universities receive less help from the Federal government. My objective is to see to it that, when asked by the state and/or local school systems and small institutions for help in meeting the "unique interests" of rural people, the Federal agencies are willing and able to respond effectively.

Until now, such has not been the case. But if all who are concerned for rural education work together, it can, and will be, soon. We're off to a good start.

COLLEGES SURGE IN THE 70'S

SPRINGFIELD, IL (AP)—There has been a "dramatic" 48.6 percent surge in enrollments in Illinois' colleges and universities during the 1970s, State Comptroller Roland W. Burris said Wednesday.

Burris said there were 716,689 students enrolled in the state's colleges and universities in 1980—an increase of 234,276 from 1970.

Burris attributed the 48 percent hike to steady growth in the state's community college system, plus increases in scholarship and student loan programs.

PUBLICATIONS WILL FOCUS ON TEACHER CENTERS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

The role of teacher centers in higher education, originally to have been the subject of an AACTE workshop, will now be the focus of a monograph including papers by both teacher center and higher education institution personnel. Sponsored jointly by AACTE and the New Jersey Southern Regional Teacher Center at Glassboro State College, the publication will be available in early 1981.

THE EXPERIENCE OF THE RURAL SCHOOLS

SHIRLEY HALL
ELSIE WAHLS and PETE MEISS

Hall, Wahls, Meiss

Shirley Hall is an undergraduate student at Eastern Illinois University. Elsie Wahls, Ms. Hall's grandmother, is a retired teacher of a one-room school. Pete Meiss is the chief administrator of Gridley (Illinois) High School. All three are graduates of Gridley High.

"Let's take a look back at the years gone by. You know I graduated from Gridley High..." Those are the first two lines of a song about my home town high school. The song was written by Jerry Meiss, who recorded it, and the high school Letterman's club sold the record.

The song never made the top forty, but to the rest of us graduates it holds a very special meaning. It may be a little corny to outsiders but I feel it summarizes the feelings held by the majority of graduates. Gridley High was a pretty good place to go to school.

Gridley, Illinois is a small, rural, mainly farming community with a population of approximately 1200. We have no big industries or particular points of interest but it is a nice quiet small American town and the residents are proud of it. A very large part of any small town is its school and that is what this article is about, rural education.

Today we hear a lot about consolidation of the rural schools. Towns are forced, because of a lack of funds, to join with other towns and consolidate their schools. Anywhere from two to eight schools may be joined together to form one and in putting these together, each of the towns is losing a part of its identity. But many people, particularly those with no experience of a rural school believe that this is good. They view the rural school as antiquated and outdated, having no possible value. Well, I for one do not agree with this. I feel that in many ways the city school could learn from the smaller schools. There are many good things to be learned in a rural school and I will attempt to relate some of these things.

In talking about rural schools, the best place to begin would be at the one room country school of the early forties and before. My grandmother, Elsie Wahls, attended and later taught in the one room schools surrounding Gridley. I asked her what some of the strong points of the one room school were.

One of the advantages, she felt, was that everyone was needed. During noon break when the students would get together to play ball or other games, no one was left out. No matter how poor a player you were, you still played, because if you didn't, there weren't enough players.

The first day of school then was not as traumatic as it sometimes is now. Since everyone was in the same room, unless you were the oldest of a family, there was always big sister or brother with you at school. Little ones didn't feel so alone on the first day. They were still with family.

Children also had the opportunity to advance at their own rate. If you were brighter and could advance faster, you were not held back. Grade levels were not so important. When you mastered one topic, you moved on to the next regardless of whether you were ahead or behind the others. Since the students were predominately farm children, during harvest and planting the boys were often needed at home. So when they returned, they picked up their lessons where they had left off.

It was also easier then for the teacher to teach the child rather than only the subject. Since the child was allowed to progress at his/her own rate, the teacher had to know the child's potential and encourage him/her to reach it.

The children had the opportunity to learn from their schoolmates. Those who could would help those who couldn't. The student could also pick up on subjects by watching the teacher work with other groups. If there were some things that a child had not quite mastered, perhaps by watching the teacher go over that topic with the group below him/her the next year, the student could then pick it up. It could work the other way too. A first grader could

watch the second graders and pick up what they were doing.

The lessons taught in the one room school did not vary much from those taught in elementary schools now. Children of the past learned reading, math facts, history, literature, etc., but their responsibilities at school might vary. The students, for example, may have had to take turns bringing fresh water or perhaps cleaning the blackboards but, other than that, daily routine was much the same then as it is now.

The high school in Gridley started in 1892. The present building was built in 1906. When this building was first built, it housed both the grade school and the high school. The grade school was exclusively for town children; the high school was also for all students in the surrounding country schools who wished to attend. The high school then employed three teachers. However, the elementary teachers often did double duty. For example, the seventh and eighth grade teacher might also be the high school English teacher.

High School education was slightly different than the one room school. If you attended high school, it was out of choice and more was expected of you. Here you were divided into respective grades and each grade had its level of work, Freshman English, Sophomore English, etc. At this point you also had individual teachers for each class, but two or three classes, each with a different teacher, could be held in the same room at different times. Often one part of the room was a study hall while a class was being held. Here you were not allowed so much to go at your own pace. You were expected to keep up with your classmates. This resulted in a high dropout rate. A class beginning with fourteen students may have graduated with only six. At times there was no graduation class. There were no choices offered at this time as to subjects. You took what was offered, including a foreign language.

Now, perhaps, this kind of high school seems a bit harsh, but then few people attended high school and even fewer attended college. The percentage of students attending high school then is proportional to the percent attending college now.

Rural high school now is quite different. Of course everyone attending grades one through eight continues on into high school now, but many of the rural school feelings still exist.

I spoke to Mr. Pete Meiss, our administrative assistant for high school affairs, as to what advantages of the small school keep him in Gridley (Mr. Meiss graduated from Gridley High School, returned and taught for ten years in Gridley, and now is an administrator there.)

He suggested that the most influential effect on the students is that the school is very personal. The students are known as people, not numbers. He, as an administrator, along with all the administrators and teachers of the school, can call each student by name on sight within the first few weeks of school. This single fact branches out into almost all other aspects of rural education.

Because the teachers and administrators know the students, there is less of a discipline problem. Even in assemblies of the entire student body if one student acts up, he can be called down by name. There is much more of a tendency to be disruptive if you know you can disappear into the crowd. In a small school you can't disappear. You are always accountable for your own actions. As a result of this, there is very little trouble at Gridley. I doubt that many urban schools could open the gym every Sunday with no one on duty to supervise and have everything in one piece on Monday. Gridley opens theirs and there has never been real trouble. Mr. Meiss did note, however, that the few times there has been trouble, mainly theft, it was someone who had not grown up here who was responsible.

The personal touch also extends into the extracurricular activities: band, sports, plays, etc. Because of the small enrollment, the students are much more involved in student activities. If you want to participate, you are never "cut" because, in most cases, everybody is needed, much like the one room school. If one didn't play, there wasn't enough for anyone to play. Tryouts are rarely held except to cast parts for the plays. The plays are chosen according to the number who want to go out. After it is known how many are interested, a play is picked that has that many parts. The same is true of the sports. If you have more people interested than there are uniforms, the extras are not "cut." Instead, extra uniforms are dug up. The uniforms may be a little older and they may not match exactly, but isn't it better that everyone gets to play rather than telling some kids they're not good enough?

Our plays, teams, newspaper, yearbook and band may not be the most professional, but everyone gets to participate and learn by it. And isn't that what education is all about? All this ties together to give the students a sense of accomplishment, builds their self confidence, and lets them be proud of themselves and their school.

Participation not only runs high among the students, but also in the community. The audiences for these programs do not consist solely of parents. Everyone comes, parents, young couples, older couples, singles, everyone, and they take pride in their school too because many of them are graduates themselves and have a deep love for the old school.

Now what about the problems that plague the urban schools: dropouts, absenteeism, fear? None of these is a problem at the small school. Last year Gridley had no dropouts. I can remember a few when I was in school but, there again, they had not grown up in our system. Absenteeism also is not a problem. One reason could be that if a student stays out of school there is literally no place for him to go. all of his friends are in school. The school is quite literally the social center for the young people and as a result they are there most of the time. And fear! Well, it just doesn't exist. I've heard that in the urban schools there are places that you just don't go and to me this is incomprehensible. I cannot imagine being afraid of any of my classmates, but then in the small school you do know them and have known them since first grade.

The personal quality is perhaps most evident in the classroom. From the beginning, the teachers know who you are and if you see them outside of the school they still know who you are. You are never just a body in a seat and because the classes are small, it is easier for the teachers to give special attention to those who need it. The teachers also can have an idea of where the student is because they have them over and over again.

This helps the students because they don't have to adapt to a completely new set of teachers each year. You can go to school knowing what to expect and that eases the pressure of the first few weeks of school. You can spend your time on classwork, not sizing up the teacher.

The biggest problem with the small school is its limited curriculum. It is just not possible to offer all the courses that

a larger school can, but just because the high school doesn't offer calculus doesn't mean that the college bound student is lacking.

I thought that when I entered college I would be substantially behind the Chicago area high school graduates. But I soon learned otherwise. In my major, I placed where I should have in Calculus I. This was the beginning of the required courses. I had a deficiency to make up here, but I soon learned that in the other areas I was ahead of many of the urban students in the general education courses. Because the small school cannot have a large curriculum, the students are forced to take a variety of subjects. So when it came to the general requirements, I had a good solid background in those subjects and they were relatively easy for me. However, those from the urban schools had been so specialized in high school that these courses were difficult for them, simply because they had no background in them. That is one of the strongest points of the small school. It gives you a good solid background both academically and emotionally. Once you have that background, you can build from there and go on to be or do whatever in life you wish.

We of the small towns are not handicapped by living there, but it is not for everyone. If you have to go to a movie every week or have to have a place to go to have fun, if you can't find or make your own entertainment, then it's not for you, but it has its good points and advantages and well, as the song about my high school says, "Gridley is where I want to be."

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All proposals should include two (2) self-addressed, stamped envelopes and be sent to:

Dr. Felice Kaufmann, Area Head
Gifted Education
1230 Haley Center
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A RURAL DISTRICT'S PROBLEMS

JAMES R. KOSS

James R. Koss is Superintendent of the Casey (Illinois) Community School District C-1. He attended a one-room school and graduated from Cisne (Illinois) High School in a class of forty-two students.

Educational problems are probably more pronounced in rural communities than in urban or suburban communities because rural schools have always been and will continue to be the heart of each community. A rural school is the heart of a community, the social center, and is usually the largest employer in the community. Rural communities identify with their schools and continue to maintain a strong sense of school pride. Many rural communities have become known statewide and nationally only because of their school's achievements.

Certain obstacles must be overcome if rural education is to be, or continue to be, progressive and effective. The obstacles can become problems if the district personnel allow them to obstruct the educational process. The obstacles I wish to discuss, not necessarily in order of seriousness or importance, are: rural traditional values, transportation, small enrollments, staffing, insufficient financial backing, and inefficient business operation.

The first problem facing most rural districts is the need to sometimes overcome traditional values in order to improve education. Rural district administrators constantly hear, "that's not what they did when I was in school," or "what was good enough for me is good enough for today's kids." Rural district administrators must be versed in diplomacy and tact as well as salesmanship if they wish to change what has been going on for years. Something as simple as a separate office for the Board of Education can become a major issue. Changes that are matter of fact or ongoing in urban or suburban districts can become serious issues in some rural districts. It is very important that rural district administrators keep the citizens informed and allow community input into any change from tradition. Some traditional values may have to be compromised in order to achieve better education; however, traditional values should never be put down or aside. Often traditional values may be used to enhance and improve education. Each district administrator must evaluate his or her own district for measures to be used in changing tradition.

Probably the most general problem in rural districts is transportation. In fact, as more solutions are sought for other rural education problems, the answers will increase the transportation problems. Most rural districts have a sparse population, and some rural areas will contain as few as two to six students per square mile. When transportation to attendance centers is required by law, it becomes the rural district's problem to provide transportation for each student living outside a certain radius of a school. It is not uncommon for rural districts to transport students by bus for two or three hours a day in order to provide the basic education. Transportation is a costly endeavor that does not provide any academic educational benefits to a district.

Districts can trim transportation costs by consolidating pickup points and making maximum use of bus capacities, but the savings are minimal compared to the hard feelings caused when parents have to bring children to central locations. Most transportation problems are compounded by closed rural roads and bridges or by load limits restricting the travel of heavy vehicles on certain roads or bridges.

The inadequate state and local funding for transportation causes the excess cost of transportation to become the responsibility of other funds which should be designated for education. There seldom are any permanent solutions to the problems caused by transportation in a rural district.

The majority of the rest of the problems facing rural districts can be solved in various ways of consolidation of efforts. Joint agreements, joint purchasing, or inter-district cooperation are just a few ways to consolidate efforts. Solving problems by joint efforts does, however, usually add to the traditional values and transportation problems referred to earlier in this article. Any change in one area usually directly affects another area.

The main reason for the need to consolidate efforts between districts is usually inadequate student enrollments to develop viable or effective programs. Districts that do not have the students necessary to justify financing programs such as vocational or special education classes can enter into joint agreements with other area districts. The formation of joint agreements requires districts to reach mutual agreement on facilities, staffing, and transportation. Some special education programs require several districts to form joint agreements in order to have enough students to afford required programs. The more districts involved in joint agreements, the more transportation problems are accented. In spite of the problems caused by transportation, rural districts are still forming area vocational centers and they continue to participate in special education cooperatives. Rural district boards of education feel that the need for service to students is more important than ignoring student needs or risking non-compliance with state or federal regulations.

Not only is it difficult to develop programs with small numbers, it is difficult to employ staff to teach the programs.

Teachers graduating from college will often elect to go to urban or suburban districts where salaries are generally higher, and there are opportunities to specialize in one teaching area. Rural districts must depend upon staff members being qualified in more than one teaching area. It is not unusual for teachers employed in rural districts to be required to be qualified in two or more areas. Often two or more rural districts will share the same teacher, especially in critical subject areas. There does seem to be a change in the trend of teachers wishing to teach in suburban or urban areas and electing instead to teach and raise their families in a rural community. One rural district staffing problem that has to be monitored is the one of a district hiring all hometown and locally educated teachers. This will tend to stifle innovation and progress in local education. If good recruitment procedures are used, however, local teachers can be a positive addition to the teaching staff. Local persons hired as teachers often know the students better and can relate to parents and students.

Another problem that local districts face is the inability to be able to order supplies in enough quantity so as to require bids and receive good pricing. A way in which many rural districts are solving this problem is by forming joint purchasing cooperatives so they can benefit from large quantity purchasing by consolidating their individual supply needs. Smaller districts can then obtain large quantity pricing, which keeps their purchasing costs down. Districts also save on costs by jointly purchasing computer systems, testing services, films, and in-service programs. Smaller districts can become more efficient by coordinating their efforts into cooperative ventures.

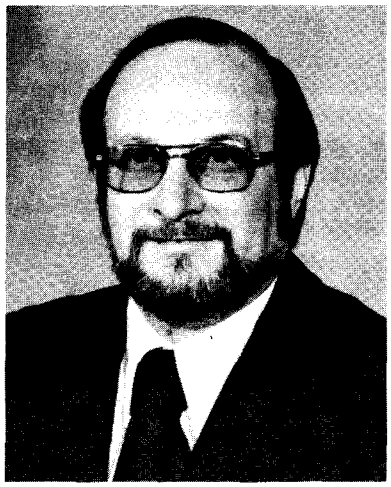
Rural districts often have problems needing immediate attention which cannot be obtained through conventional ways. Examples could be a shortage of buses, equipment breakdowns, a need for extra staff for temporary or short-term projects, or temporary loss or shut down of facilities. Rural schools will help each other by furnishing or loaning buses, helping with copying services when copy machines are broken, loaning staff members to help with health examinations, or actually loaning athletic fields or facilities. It is a common practice for rural districts to cooperatively loan personnel, equipment and facilities.

Some rural districts are faced with the inability to finance adequate facilities or the inability to pass referenda necessary to build new facilities. Lack of state funding because of small numbers of students can also hurt a rural district when funding from the state is based upon the number of students enrolled. Rural districts many times are not able to compete for grant monies because of the lack of administrative or other personnel needed to write the applications and compete for the necessary funding. Rural districts that try to overcome these problems by consolidation of districts risk the loss of traditional values and the creation of transportation problems. Many rural consolidated districts are still finding individual communities within the districts fighting against the consolidation several years after a new district is formed. Just looking at some of the names of unit districts formed in past years will show the concern that boards of education have had in trying to appease individual communities. Some of the biggest shows of concern by citizens in consolidation of rural districts have had very little to do wth the education of the children of the district. Such things as location of a new school or naming of a team have caused many hard feelings between communities. Rural district citizens feel very close to their schools and will go to great lengths to defend the retention of their community school, especially the athletic teams of that school. Too often some of the citizens remember the one team that won the conference or went to state. Districts studying the proposal of consolidation will need to move slowly and carefully and make sure that all the emotional issues are satisfactorily compromised or else risk the loss of efforts to promote better education for students through consolidation of districts.

To summarize the problems of a rural district would be to say that most problems deal with numbers or space. Students (numbers) dictate what programs are financially feasible, and the geographic area (space) of a district dictates what programs and facilities are available. The smaller the number of students enrolled and the larger the area, the more problems a district will have to overcome to provide a better education. Finally, local control of a school district is very important to rural citizens, and any attempt to erode local control will meet with much resistance. Rural education will, however, continue to thrive and grow with the needs of its students. Rural citizens are proud and will remain alert to overcome the problems with viable solutions.

TEACHER CENTERS AND RURAL NEEDS

GLEN SHAW



Glen Shaw is the Executive Director of the Southwest West Central Educational Cooperative Service Unit. His office is located at Southwest State University in Marshall, Minnesota.

The southwestern and west central portions of Minnesota are rich farming areas where corn, soybeans, sugar beets, and small grains are raised in abundance. It is also an area that has a number of small rural schools located in small rural communities that take a great deal of pride in their schools. These schools are encountering heavy financial difficulty due largely to declining enrollments. A logical question is: why are schools in a rich farming area experiencing financial difficulty even with declining enrollments, if the communities really are proud and supportive of them?

The answer is that, in the State of Minnesota, the funding of schools is basically "equal" in terms of the number of students enrolled. In general, every school in the state receives the same amount of foundation aid on a per-pupil basis. The total revenues of some schools have not really increased in the last decade due to declining enrollments, although the per-pupil foundation aid has increased.

At the same time, other costs have risen substantially. Many of these districts are single-building districts with long rural bus routes. Neither building nor transportation costs can be substantially reduced as enrollments decline, which means that programs must be reduced and staff cut, along with a number of other components of the school program. Inservice is one of the first areas to be cut, even though it is more important in an era of decline and cutbacks, due to the increased demands placed on staff.

Despite the decline in enrollments and an erosion of state and local financial support for education, the quest for better schools will continue. As we draw increasingly on new research and technology, teaching skill will take on even greater importance. Hence, the quest for better schools depends heavily upon our ability to perpetuate the sophistication of our teachers and our ability to provide inservice delivery systems which significantly enhance their continuing professional development.

Inservice education has traditionally been viewed as "remedial" or "corrective" in nature and has basically been thought of as a means of overcoming professional inadequacies or limitations. The tradition has, unfortunately, often been a reactive practice with the needs often determined by persons other than the teachers for whom the workshop, course, or seminar was designed. Such determination of needs has basically made inservice education all but ineffectual. The practice has built upon weaknesses rather than strengths and has been reactive rather than proactive and creative. All teachers, including the very best, require some type of systematic professional development activity to extend and update their skills, to meet new legislative mandates, and to adapt their methods to a changing society.

The question then becomes: how can vitally needed teacher inservice be delivered to large numbers of teachers and schools in a highly rural area without financial resources? The answer is with a federally funded teacher center through the Teacher Center Program of the Education Department hosted by the Southwest and West Central Educational Cooperative Service Unit (ECSU).

The ECSU serves an eighteen county, 12,500 square mile area of southwest and west central Minnesota. Within this area are located 104 member schools, both public and non public, 60,000 children, and 4,800 educators.

The purposes of the ECSU are stated in Minnesota statute 123.58, subd. 3: "The primary purposes of designation as an ECSU shall be to perform education planning on a regional basis and to assist in meeting specific educational needs of children in participating school districts which could be better provided by an ECSU than by the districts themselves. The ECSU shall provide those educational programs and services which are determined...to be priority needs of the particular region and shall assist in meeting special needs which arise from fundamental constraints upon individual school districts."

One other vital element of the ECSU is the voluntary aspect of the statute, subdivision 4, which states: "Participation in programs and services provided by the ECSU shall be discretionary and no school district shall be compelled to participate in the services under authority of this section..."

Teacher centers offer a relatively new form of inservice education for teachers and administrators. Teacher centers have their roots in Great Britain where, in 1965, the term "teacher center" was first used to describe a sort of teachers' club, the purpose of which was to make it easier for teachers to get together in discussion groups, to see new materials, to watch demonstrations, to attend seminars, or just to socialize. There are now several hundred teacher centers throughout Great Britain. Their increase has been due, in large part, to the encouragement of both the National Union of Teachers and the National Schools Council.

In Britain, the teacher centers are governed by teacher

committees, but the chief of staff, the "warden," is hired and paid by the local education authorities. The British teacher center has been a unique development designed to improve education by serving teachers rather than instructing or directing them.[1]

American educators were quick to recognize the possibilities of such an idea working here, and soon teacher centers were a reality in the United States. Several have existed since 1970.

The federal government began financing teacher centers in 1978. In the school year 1979-80 there were eighty-nine federally-funded teacher centers serving 1,327 school districts. Ten more planning/establishing grants have been funded this year. There are also about 200 independent and private teacher centers around the country. As a result of the Higher Education Act Amendments of 1980, there will soon be at least one teacher center in every state in the nation.

Teacher centers vary in many respects according to local setting, organizational structure, and program emphasis. Yet they share commonalities in educational belief and practice. The Teacher's Center Exchange, a national networking agency of teacher centers at the Far West Laboratory in San Francisco, describes these similarities:

Teacher Centers respond to teachers' own definitions of their continuing learning needs by offering assistance and instruction that help teachers enrich and activate the learning experience of the children in their classrooms.

Teacher Centers provide an environment where teachers may come to work on materials or projects for their classrooms, receive instruction individually and together, and teach and encourage each other.

Teacher Centers advise and assist teachers in their schools, working in the spirit of finding the teachers' own starting points for improvement.

Teacher Centers urge teachers to take more, not less, responsibility for curriculum and instruction decisions in the school and the classroom, and encourage teachers to participate in the design of professional development programs.[2]

In summary, "a teacher center is a place or program where teachers come to work on curriculum for their classes, to participate in inservice education which is designed to meet the needs they themselves have defined, which provides a context for sharing their successes and their problems, and which stimulates and encourages professional growth over a long period of time."[3]

The basic difference between programs offered by teacher centers and those offered at schools of education is that, generally, teacher center programs are for experienced classroom teachers and, by federal mandate, governed by teachers and the affiliates of the National Education Association and the American Federation of Teachers. Teacher centers are in or near schools, and open at times convenient for teachers.

Many courses are given without college credit, but offer certification renewal units lasting one day, or over a longer period, depending on the need. The centers are frequently places where teachers can relax, find resources for their classes, construct materials, share ideas, and discuss common problems.

In a typical federally funded center, the government grants money to a local education agency such as a local school district or an intermediate agency like an ECSU. More than half of the policy board governing a center must be teachers.

The Southwest and West Central Teacher Center is the result of a cooperative effort between Southwest State University (SSU), the Minnesota Education Association, and the Southwest and West Central Educational Cooperative Service Unit. All contributed human and material resources to the development and implementation of the Teacher Center. Teachers and others from the ECSU member schools played a major role in the whole process from conceptualization, through proposal development, to actual hands-on formation of the center components.

Although the ECSU is the fiscal agent, and thus the ECSU Board of Directors is ultimately responsible for the Teacher Center, the real operational aspects of the Teacher Center rest with an eighteen—member policy board, most of whose members come from the community schools in the southwest and west central areas of the state. The Teacher Center is staffed by a director, an inservice coordinator, a media specialist, a secretary and a part-time para-professional.

The Southwest and West Central Teacher Center is located in the Learning Center of the Department of Education, Southwest State University, Marshall, Minnesota. The very location of the Teacher Center is an indication of a unique relationship between a teacher center and a university. The space for the teacher center was donated by Southwest State University. Materials and staff are shared by the Department of Education's Learning Center and the Teacher Center. In his letter of support for the Teacher Center, Dr. Jon Wefald, President of SSU, who is one of the nation's leading advocates of rural education, stated, "Southwest State University welcomes this opportunity to take an active part in establishing teacher center activities in southwestern Minnesota. The success of this proposal will be a major step toward meeting the needs of teachers in rural southwestern Minnesota. The University is pleased to share its resources with teachers in the region."

Another unique feature of the Teacher Center is the Mobile Teacher Center, which is a twenty-five foot recreational vehicle. The Mobile Teacher Center contains a host of curriculum and instructional materials, as well as equipment, that teachers can use to make materials for immediate classroom use. The Mobile Teacher Center enables the service to be delivered on site to all schools in the service area. Inservice not requiring the Mobile Teacher Center is also delivered on site by the staff traveling by automobile. Teachers within reasonable driving distance come to the Teacher Center located at the University. Teacher study groups have been formed to address and deliver inservices to particular groups of teachers. This year's subjects are art, social studies, science, and counseling. Workshops of various kinds have been held to address both very specific needs such as classroom learning centers, and more global needs such as Title I inservice and gifted/talented training seminars.

The collaboration pointed out throughout this scenario can no longer be viewed as a means which is difficult to attain. Collaboration is of the essence and must be attained, if for no other reason than necessity itself. Teacher centers can, should, and must be the catalyst and cannot be ignored. They are entities which deserve the attention and support of State Legislatures, State Departments of Education, and Institutes of Higher Education. We are

fortunate to have had Congress pass such an enabling piece of legislation. However, the responsibility should not stop at the Federal level. Teacher centers should be an integral part of the staff development plan of every State Department of Education and money should be appropriated at the State level to assure that this will happen.

The success of the Southwest and West Central Teacher Center in terms of impacting on rural education through teacher inservice will be determined in the future. What can be determined presently is that a great effort is being put forth by a number of people and agencies in a cooperative way to address the needs of rural educators. Also, the observation can be made that there are numbers of excited, involved educators working to bring greater educational opportunities to children in rural schools.

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GETTING TO KNOW EASTERN --- NEW VPAA RIVES' FIRST GOAL

Vice-president for Academic Affairs Stanley Rives said recently that his primary concern in his new role is becoming familiar with the administrators and programs at Eastern.

Rives assumed his new duties on January 1, filling the post left vacant by Thomas Bond who resigned to assume the presidency at Clarion State University in Clarion, Pa.

Rives, 50, a native of Decatur, Illinois, holds bachelor's and master's degrees from Illinois State University and the Ph.D. from Northwestern, Department of Public Address and Group Communication. He began his teaching career in 1955 as Director of Forensics at West Virginia University. He joined the faculty at Illinois State in 1958 as an Assistant Professor of Speech and Director of Forensics. In his former position as Associate Provost and Dean of Instruction at Illinois State, Rives had the primary administrative responsibility for university-wide academic program development and academic support services.

Eastern President Daniel Marvin said, "Dr. Rives is an exceptional administrator who is entirely familiar with the Illinois system of higher education. His recommendations were outstanding and I was most pleased to offer his appointment to the Board. He will be a strong voice for academic excellence at Eastern"

Rives said, "The confidence expressed by the faculty in inviting me to join them as Vice-president for Academic Affairs is warmly appreciated. I am enthusiastic about working with the faculty, students, and administrative colleagues. I believe Eastern has a bright future and I am pleased to be a part of it."

Dr. Rives said he is concerned with making the VPAA's office responsive to the demands placed upon it. In order to meet that goal and improve communications within the university, he has instituted weekly meetings between his office and the deans of the schools and college which comprise the university.

Rives said an immediate consideration of his office is finalizing the fiscal year 1982 budget. He said the FY 82 budget is particularly important because of the state of the economy and Eastern's previous underfunding problems.

"Higher education is not immune to the general state of the economy," Rives said. "We're going to have some problems until the economy recovers."

With a tighter budget, Rives said the emphasis of his office would probably be on revamping and updating existing programs at Eastern rather than attempting to create new programs from limited resources.

In 1960 Dr. Rives was selected as "Outstanding Young Teacher of Speech" by the Central States Speech Association. He was Director of Forensics at Illinois State from 1958 to 1967.

He is the co-author of three books and is the author of numerous articles in professional journals. Rives and Mrs. Rives are the parents of two children.

RURAL TEACHERS AND TEACHER EDUCATION

LANDA TRENTHAM
JACK E. BLACKBURN

Dr. Landa Trentham is an Associate Professor in the Foundations of Education Department at Auburn University. She also chairs the American Educational Research Association Special Interest Group on Rural Education. Dr. Jack E. Blackburn is Dean of the School of Education at Auburn.

For how long have we heard that bigger is better, that change is a good thing, that we can "gt a gd jb w/ mo pa" in the city? (Apologies to speed writers everywhere.) Many people are beginning to question the truth of these ideas. In fact, we now recognize a rural "in-migration" that is not truly new. Traditionally, people who have "made it" in the city have then moved to the suburbs. Not rural, you say, and you are right. Still this mobility is indicative of a felt need to lead a calmer, more peaceful life.

Particularly the Seventies gave rise to a group of adults who made conscious choices in favor of less harried lives, more rural lives. They did not leave their dishwasher and television behind, thus denying progress, but they did and do aspire to more rural values and location.

This article attempts to look at a specific facet of rural life—rural education—and to determine what special needs and problems, if any, exist for rural teachers. Going even further, what can teacher preparation institutions do before the fact to help teachers deal with some of the aspects of rural teaching that seem to trouble them?

The literature is full of the relative advantages and disadvantages of rural schools vs. city schools. Most of the literature speaks to the disadvantages of rural schools and teaching. It appears that one generally makes more money in a city district, has more equipment and fewer preparations in a city district. Surveys such as those by Muse (1977, 1979) and Hobbs (1979) support these assertions. The literature also tells us that the city has more cultural and educational opportunities and that social and professional relationships are more difficult in rural areas, especially for teachers who did not grow up in a rural locale.

Why, then, does anyone teach in rural schools except from necessity? Even more important, why do those who teach in rural areas like it and what skills do they need to deal with the inherent problems?

Muse (1979) found that about fifty-six percent of the teachers in the small, rural secondary schools he surveyed grew up in rural settings or towns of less than 2500 persons. Only about seven percent of the teachers in the Muse study wanted to move to a city to teach while over seventy percent wanted to remain in a rural district as teachers. These data support the idea that persons from both rural and urban backgrounds can and do teach in rural areas, and, furthermore, they like it well enough to stay.

In an attempt to determine the answer to the "how" and "why" of teaching in rural areas, we interviewed twenty-four local district teachers. All of the teachers had taught in both city and rural districts (the only selection criteria). Half of the teachers are now working in rural schools and half are in city schools.

While the twenty-four teachers generally agreed on many factors that made teaching in rural and city districts different, they frequently did not support concerns highlighted in the literature. One concept they did support was that city schools usually had better facilities and equipment. City teachers are provided with more materials, more funds for instruction, more "things" that will help them do a good job in teaching their students. They also have more aides and other support personnel that facilitate their teaching.

These teachers also agreed that the cities do have more educational and cultural advantages and opportunities, but said that few teachers and students take full advantage of them for learning or personal use. In fact, they felt that transportation, cost, and insurance factors more often than not preclude the use of opportunities available.

There seemed to be no real differences in these teachers' attitudes about parent and community support and involvement in school and teaching activities. Those teaching vocational education did indicate that they drove many fewer miles for home visits in the city. The great majority of the teachers said that it was, however, no easier to contact parents or get parents to come to the school for conferences in the city than it was in rural areas. The teachers currently in rural areas did say that once contact was made they had better cooperation from rural parents than they had had in the cities.

The teachers were unanimous in their belief that rural students were better behaved and more easily disciplined than city students. Most said that rural students had more respect for themselves, others and property and were more responsible than were city students. All but two of the teachers said rural students were as motivated to learn and more willing to take direction than city students. Most agreed that rural students were less socially mature than city students. Most of the teachers also said that rural students felt themselves more a part of the school community and had different and somewhat higher sets of values.

As far as achievement was concerned, the teachers were divided. About fifty percent perceived no differences in ability or achievement in the students they had taught in the two types of locales. Others indicated that their "high" and "low" students in the cities were more extreme than any of their rural students. Two teachers said that their city students were better achievers.

Contrary to most of the literature, these teachers did not perceive any personal adjustment problems related to living and working in either rural or city areas. All the teachers said they "fitted in" in all the locales in which they had taught. Five persons who now teach in rural settings grew up in large cities but said they had had to make minimal life style adjustments when they moved to rural areas. They did not miss the activities of the city nor did they feel their new neighbors to be "clannish" or unreceptive to them. These same "lack of adjustment problem" attitudes were held by those who grew up in the country and are teaching in a city district.

None of the teachers expressed any real dissatisfaction with their college training. They did not seem to differentiate at all between training needed for rural and city teaching. When asked if they could make any suggestions about how their preservice education could have been improved, however, most of the teachers did make suggestions and most of the suggestions were the same. They said preservice teachers need more and earlier experiences in public school settings, that preservice teachers need more varied settings in which to have these experiences and that university courses and teachers need to present a more realistic, less ideal picture of what teaching will truly be like. All of these suggestions are, of course, related and are supported by educators in general. The rural teachers did have a few additional suggestions tied mainly to the fact that materials and equipment are limited in rural settings—more emphasis on development of teacher—made materials and general encouragement for, and experience in, innovative and creative teaching. In the case of the latter, they did not make suggestions about how to develop the skills of innovation and creativity but did indicate they were essential if a teacher is to do top teaching in a limited resource situation.

For the most part, all of the teachers we interviewed were happy in their present position and had no desire to move from city to country or vice versa. It appears that these teachers have their own value systems at work; they have made a conscious choice, knowing the benefits and detriments of both situations. Some have chosen the city for its facilities and life almost in spite of the non-conformity of students they encounter; others have opted for rural students and values in spite of situational limitations. We might add that many of these teachers had had opportunities to change settings and chose not to return to their previous environments.

Obviously, these "chats" with teachers are not definitive. They do indicate a need for more extensive, more structured studies of teacher attitudes, beliefs, values, and performance in a variety of settings. Such studies are essential if we are ever to define the preparation programs needed by teachers who plan to work in a specific type of setting. Our mobile society also demands that such programs be structured to provide teachers with varied experiences that will allow them to function effectively in many settings, whatever their initial plans may be.

Fratoe (1979) stated that the "uniqueness of rural education lies in social and demographic *conditions* found in rural America." He further stressed the fact that many educational functions such as "mastering the basics, understanding one's community, developing human relationships, self-realization, etc., apply as much to the urban situation as they do to the rural."

We have found no specific data to indicate that there are special or unique ways in which teachers for rural schools should be prepared other than the opinion that any program should include frequent in-school field experiences in a variety of settings. This is not to say that special conditions are not warranted; simply that, as yet, they are undefined. The observations and recommendations relative to teacher education contained in the remainder of this article are based upon principles and concepts acceptable to and promoted by educational literature and professional organizations concerned with the education of teachers.

The Educational Policies Commission (1951) stated the need for good schooling for all persons regardless of the location of their schools:

We need schools which, "...by making freely available the common heritage of human association and human culture, opens to every child the opportunity to grow to his full physical, intellectual, moral, and spiritual stature. It favors those plans of school organization and instruction which recognize and meet the varying needs and aspirations of individuals. By exploring and acknowledging the capacities of each child, education seeks to develop all his creative powers, to encourage him to feel that he can do things of value, that he belongs, and that he is wanted. It discourages every tendency toward despotism. It assigns no superior moral status, but rather a more definite moral responsibility, to the strong and able. It endeavors to arouse in each individual a profound sense of self-respect and personal integrity."

We accept this statement as the basic rationale upon which schools in rural areas should be organized and teachers for students in these schools should be educated.

Implications and assumptions which can be derived from the Educational Policies Commission's statement are helpful in giving direction for the education of teachers for children who live in rural areas. Nine assumptions which we have identified are:

1. Individuals are cherished for their uniqueness, as well as for their similarities to other individual persons.
2. Schools are human inventions created to nourish individual differences and similarities and to assist students in their affective, cognitive, and psychomotor growth.
3. People learn at different rates and in different ways.
4. Curriculum and instruction are the school environment's primary means of providing opportunities for student growth.
5. A student's school experiences become more individualized and meaningful when the school environment offers a wide variety of curriculum and instruction alternatives.
6. Alternatives in curriculum and instruction must be related to the students being served and to the competencies of teachers and other education personnel.
7. Curriculum and instruction are dynamic, changing concepts and processes which reflect: (a) the nature of students, (b) the social realities of the times, (c) the nature of knowledge and subject matter, and (d) the values and goals of schools, students and other citizenry.
8. Teachers and students should be involved in planning, implementing, and evaluating curriculum and instruction alternatives.
9. Success experiences foster other success experiences; curriculum and instruction should be designed and implemented in such a way that each student has a good chance of being successful each day.

Using these assumptions as guideposts for preparing teachers for rural areas, the remainder of this discussion is devoted to our considered judgements about some elements needed in teacher education.

First and foremost, each of us can only behave in terms of what he/she believes is so. What a teacher believes, therefore, about the nature and concepts of several areas will have a most important effect upon the way a teacher behaves. We believe that there are three basic areas in which teachers develop beliefs and knowledge one way or another, and that these beliefs and knowledge influence what a teacher does as a professional. Persons develop concepts about each area, and, in fact, when concepts or beliefs are applied in practice they interact and overlap with one another. Therefore, each area can be, and sometimes must be, studied in isolation from the other areas. However, in order for teacher education students to best comprehend the interactive nature of the areas, opportunities must be provided and learning experiences designed for this purpose. Each area with a brief discussion is outlined below.

1. **A teacher's behavior is determined by his or her perceptions about the nature of students and how they learn.** The teacher education curriculum must provide an opportunity for prospective teachers to develop a working knowledge base in:

- How differences and similarities in human growth and development of students can be accommodated in school settings.
- The stages of development of students—intellectual, physical, and emotional—and the role the school can assume in these developmental aspects.
- How accommodations can be made for variations in learning styles of students.
- The nature of learning theories, their differences and similarities, and which theories are most appropriate for accomplishing particular educational goals and objectives.
- The role the school can play in fostering student interests and attitudes, and in clarifying student values.
- The ways the school can respond to the student's perceptions of his/her personal future, i.e., career choice, further education, leisure time, individual life style.

2. **A teacher's behavior is determined by his/her perception about the larger society, and the particular societal environment in which he/she is living and teaching, and in which the teacher's students are living and learning.**

This area suggests several knowledge dimensions which will be helpful to teacher success and which would be desirable to include in teacher preparation programs. Some of these dimensions are:

- The nature of change and continuity in society.
- The social climates in which the teacher participates.
- The social role of the teacher.
- The social realities of the times and the influence of these realities upon schooling and students.
- The processes of deciding what to teach as society changes and relating the curriculum to the student's society.
- Principles which can be used to determine what parts of the cultural heritage should be included in the school curriculum.
- Methods of preparing students for the future, for an unforeseeable society in which many changes are projected in job requirements and choices, in mores, customs and values, in mobility and relationships, and in other areas of life.
- The dynamics of classroom social interaction upon learning, individual student behavior and the teacher's behavior.

3. **A teacher's behavior is determined by his/her perceptions about the generation and the use of knowledge and subject matter.**

This knowledge base area includes the teacher's study of the discipline and subject matter which he/she intends and plans to teach as well as the teacher's perceptions about the usefulness of knowledge and how to relate subject matter to students. "The good teacher is not stupid. He has a rich, extensive and available field of perceptions about the subject matter for which he is responsible...this is the aspect with which teacher education has traditionally been most successful" (Combs, 1965, p.20).

In addition to the adequate provision for learning content to be taught, the teacher education program should help prospective teachers to determine:

- What knowledge is important enough to be included in the curriculum.
- How to select and relate content to specific student populations.
- How changes in knowledge (and obsolescence) are, and can be, accommodated in the school program.
- Means of organizing knowledge and subject matter for teaching and learning, e.g., chronologically or logically; around concepts and generalizations within a discipline; or with little regard for the disciplines per se or chronology, but using student interests or problem areas for organizing; or a combination of means.
- How to appropriately communicate knowledge of subject matter which is learned at the college level to students who are not in college.

The three knowledge bases identified and discussed above suggest a general framework for organizing content and methology for a teacher education program.

In order to relate content knowledge to specific populations, i.e., students in rural areas, special provisions

must be made to include such knowledge as: demographic data about rural sociology and development, the influence of rural environments upon perceptions and aspirations of students, education funding patterns in rural areas and implications of the patterns for the quality of education and demands upon educational personnel, and organizational patterns in rural schools and their program offerings.

Obviously, prospective teachers must be given extensive opportunities to learn about rural education at the heart of the source—rural communities, their schools, and their people. Teacher educators should be required to organize their programs so that their students learn to enjoy the excitement of teaching and living in rural communities through actual experiences in rural settings.

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National Rural Center Focuses On Collaboration

The mission of the National Rural Center, a private, non-profit organization, is to collaborate with private and public organizations in the development and implementation of national policies and programs which will increase development opportunities in rural areas, particularly for the poor and near poor. The center's goal is to develop and present information of the highest possible quality and to create and maintain a process through which that information is received by a broad audience, refined, assimilated and acted on. In doing so, the center seeks to provide information which deals with rural issues comprehensively rather than along narrow, fragmented lines.

The Center currently has programs in education, health, economic development, human services, and data and capacity-building. It plans to add programs in rural transportation and energy.

The Center's education program is conducting research and policy analysis on rural problems and issues; expanding a national network; and disseminating information through publications, speeches, seminars and workshops, telephone responses and letters.

Examples of NRC assistance to states and localities are:

- Working with a group of humanists and librarians in the West on a study of rural schooling on the frontier.

- Working with the Arkansas Community Education Development Association in planning to establish school-based development enterprises in several rural Arkansas districts;

- Serving on a number of advisory boards, e.g. the ERIC Clearinghouse for Rural Education and Small Schools;

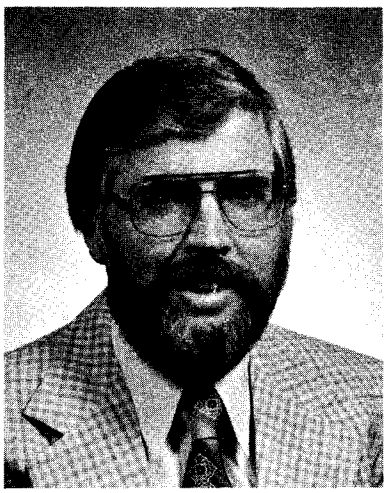
- Presenting papers and speaking to groups throughout the country about rural education problems, issues and potential.

For more information contact:
Gail Armstrong Parks
National Rural Center
1828 L Street N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

HOW RURAL ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS PERCEIVE THEIR ROLE: IMPLICATIONS FOR TRAINING

ROBERT J. KRAJEWSKI and LARRY E. PARKER

Krajewski



Parker

Dr. Robert J. Krajewski is Alumni Professor in the Department of Educational Leadership at Auburn University. Dr. Larry Parker works with the Heard County Schools (Franklin, Georgia) and is on the adjunct faculty of West Georgia College (Carrollton, Georgia).

A random sampling of Alabama/Georgia rural elementary principals done in 1980 reveals many disparities between their views and those of the 1980 Gallup Poll respondents concerning the problems facing today's schools. This article will present a demographic profile of typical rural elementary principals in Alabama and Georgia, their views of the schools' problems, how they spend their school day, and the possible implications these factors have for university administration/supervision training programs.

Recent interest in rural education has mushroomed. Increasing research, regional and national seminars, and the existence and activities of the National Rural Center all attest to the current concern with rural America and its problems of diversity, isolation, finances and educational attainment. But study of these problems is not easy because present statistical definitions do not allow for precise, descriptive delineations of "rural." In other words, "rural" is a relative term; an area considered "non-rural" by its residents may be considered very "rural" by others.

Yet, while it may be difficult to define rural precisely or descriptively, there is such an area nationwide, and Alabama and Georgia share this rural population and its inherent problems. The 1978 population figures revealed that Alabama had 2,283,000 metropolitan residents and 1,408,000 non-metropolitan residents, and Georgia had 2,864,000 metropolitan and 2,177,000 non-metropolitan residents.[1] For the same year Alabama had 563,000 in the five to thirteen age group, and Georgia had 791,000.[2] In Alabama, 95.8 percent of that age group was enrolled in school; 96.0 percent of the group in Georgia was enrolled.[3]

In 1978, Alabama comprised 127 school districts, containing 520 public schools with elementary grades only, 510 schools with grades 1 or K through 12, and 197 non-public schools. Georgia, on the other hand, had 188 districts containing 1284 public schools with elementary grades only, 44 with grades K or 1 through 12, and 94 non-public elementary schools.[4] For 1978, Alabama enrolled 514,000 in grades K-8, and Georgia, 744,000.[5] Alabama employed 16,994 public elementary teachers and Georgia, 31,161.[6] Thus, well over one third of the population of each of these two states is non-metropolitan.

The definition of *rural* used in this study is the same as that of the U.S. Census Bureau's *expanded rural non-metropolitan* definition: "all farms, open countryside and places of less than 10,000 residents outside Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas."[7] For purposes of this study, school systems in the counties of the two states fitting the above definition were identified by use of the United States Census Bureau maps. Elementary schools within those systems were identified by the official Alabama and Georgia State Directory Listings. Samples (100 each from Alabama and Georgia) were randomly drawn, without replacement, from alphabetized school names using a table of random numbers. A combination forced-choice and open-ended questionnaire consisting of 36 questions was mailed to the sample. One hundred forty-six (76%) of the sample responded. All returned responses were usable.

The 1978 National Association of Elementary School Principals' national study data indicate that the typical elementary principal is a white (90.7%) male (82%), who is

46 years old, has an M.Ed., sees the elementary principalship as his final occupational goal (65%), and spends 48 hours or less each week at school (60%). The data also indicates that the mean age of the rural principal is 33.[8]

The typical Alabama/Georgia rural elementary principal is a male (84%), who is 45 years old, has an M.Ed., has taught for 8 years before becoming a principal (58% at elementary level), has been at his present school for 8 of the 12 years employed in that system and comes to the job from a teaching or non-administrative position (59%). The mean age of the Alabama/Georgia elementary principal is 45, a considerable contrast to the rural elementary principal in the National Association of Elementary School Principals' study (33). Also, he grew up in a rural area (82%), was educated in state (80%), lives in the community where he works (58%) and sees the principalship as a final occupational goal (58%).

Table 1 compares Gallup Poll (1980) respondents' and Alabama/Georgia rural elementary principals' perception of major problems confronting the schools.

TABLE 1

Major Problems Confronting the Schools

Problems	Ala/Ga Elem. Prin.* % (N = 146)		Gallup* % (N = 1,547)	
1. Parent's Lack of Interest	19.2		6	
2. Pupils' Lack of Interest	15.1		5	
3. Overcrowding	13.7		7	
4. Difficulty Getting Good Teachers	13.7		6	
5. Teachers Lack of Interest	4.8		6	
6. Poor Curriculum/Standards	2.7		11	
7. Lack of Discipline	1.4		26	
8. Use of Dope/Drugs	.7		14	

*1980 survey

The Alabama/Georgia rural elementary principals and lay respondents' views seem to be negatively correlated. For the eleventh time in 12 years, lack of discipline was the top problem identified by the Gallup Poll (26%), yet it was ranked next to last in importance by the rural principals (1.4%). Use of dope/drugs, ranked second important by the Gallup respondents (14%), was ranked last by the rural principals (.7%). The rural elementary principals felt their most important problem to be parents' lack of interest, followed by pupils' lack of interest and overcrowding. These perceptions correlate negatively with the Gallup respondents. The only agreement between the two groups came in the areas of 'difficulty getting good teachers' and teachers' lack of interest, rated somewhat important by both groups.

The rural elementary principalship in Alabama and Georgia is, the respondents indicate, a time-consuming and demanding position. The typical respondent has 9 years experience as an elementary principal and works over 50 hours each week (59%); 36% of that time is spent in instructional improvement activities, 27% in management, 17% in teaching, 13% in discipline and 12% working with parents. These activities closely parallel their job descriptions and represent what many elementary principals say they would like to do in their job.[9] Only 10% of the respondents use clinical supervision in instructional improvement activities; 60% are not familiar enough with the term "clinical supervision" to be able to use that process.

Many writers and practitioners have argued that rural elementary principals indeed face different problems than do their counterparts in urban areas. The Alabama/Georgia rural elementary principal respondents perceive the rural principalship as different from the urban principalship (84%), but only 7% feel that specialized training is required for prospective rural elementary principals. As far as training for their position, (87%) feel well or moderately prepared; only 8% feel poorly prepared.

The survey included an open ended question asking for recommended changes in graduate training for elementary principal respondents. Table 2 lists the changes recommended in university administrative/supervision training programs to better prepare them for the rural elementary principal position.

TABLE 2

Changes Recommended by Rural Elementary Principals in Alabama and Georgia in Administration/Supervision Training Programs

Changes Recommended	Number of Times
More Practical Subject Matter/On-the-job Training	27
Internship Similar to Student Teaching	24
More Curriculum Study/Content Area Study	12
Interpersonal Relations/Conflict Resolution	10
More Emphasis on Supervision of Instruction	9
Coursework in Public Relations	8
More Financial Coursework	4
Coursework in Discipline	4
Special Education	4
Personnel	2

As observed from Table 2, internship, practical training, curriculum work, instructional supervision and communication comprise 87% of the recommended changes for training programs. The respondents felt that more work in these areas was needed.

Implications for Training Programs

Data gathered in this study may not be generalized to all rural elementary principals; they must be limited to the rural elementary principal in Alabama and Georgia. Implications for training programs are likewise so limited. Nevertheless, we hope that this data may be of use to researchers in building a bank of knowledge concerning problems faced by rural elementary principals. Eventually, we trust, common problems can be explicated from that data bank and their solutions can be incorporated into university administration/supervision training programs.

Key data from the Alabama/Georgia rural elementary principal study are:

—mean age (45)
—rural background (82%)
—employed in school district (12 years)
—employed in present school (8 years)
—major problems are parent and public lack of interest
—educated in state employed (80%)

—content to remain in rural elementary principalship
—time spent on the job
—time spent on instructional improvement activities (36%)
—elementary background (59%)
—see position as different from urban principalship
—wish more training in curriculum, instruction, communication and practical aspects of job

Data indicate that state support for administration/supervision training programs is paying off in Alabama and Georgia since most principals are employed in the state where they receive their training; further, most principals work in the type of area in which they grew up. University training programs should allow for internship experiences which would broaden the perspective of future rural elementary principals, especially in communication, curriculum and instruction.

Data on instructional improvement activities presently used in rural elementary schools should be collected. University training programs should include more emphasis on instructional improvement activities, especially the more desirable ones presently used in rural elementary schools.

Continued data should be collected by university training personnel to determine: a) effectiveness of types of practicum and internship experiences, and b) whether there are specific skills and/or techniques needed for principals working in rural elementary schools.

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FRANK LUTZ ASSUMES EDUCATION DEANSHIP

Eastern President Daniel Marvin described Lutz as "a schoiar who is vitally interested in educational policy and who is an able administrator."

Frank W. Lutz came to Eastern in July, 1980. He completed his doctorate at Washington University in St. Louis in 1962. His teaching experience includes ten years of work in public and private schools in both elementary and secondary schools and coaching at both secondary and collegiate levels. In addition, he has been Director of Research in New Mexico and visiting professor at the University of New Mexico, and has held professional ranks at New York University and the Pennsylvania State University.

Dr. Lutz is considered a national authority on local school boards and the organization and governance of local school districts. He is prominent among individuals who have held that local school districts are the "fundamental grass roots of American democracy" and has publically denounced attempts to erode their authority by state or federal government. The author of six books, 14 chapters in other books, and sixty articles in professional journals, he has been a consistent contributor to professional associations, delivering more than 80 papers to national and state conferences of the American Association of School Administrators, National School Board Association, Principal's Association, American Educational Research Association, and the American Anthropological Association.

Dr. Lutz is married and has three grown children. He has served as president of a local school board, consultant to local boards in five states, scout leader, Red Cross volunteer, and board member of a national corporation.

He says his single purpose as dean of Eastern is to assist the faculty in continuing their excellent programs and obtaining recognition as the outstanding institution in Teacher Education areas appropriate to the mission of the University.


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